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Armed Forces and Higher Education: Competitors or Partners?

EDWARD L. KATZENBACH, JR., AND BEN M. ZEFF

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE—Office of Education

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Armed Forces and Higher Education: Competitors or Partners?

By EDWARD L. KATZENBACH, JR., and BEN M. ZEFF*

WAR is no longer a matter of muscles. Now it is largely a matter of brains, and the need for brains is not limited to a handful of high ranking military leaders. Today all the men and women in the Department of Defense—whether they are military or civilian employees—need the education necessary to meet the startling changes in our world occurring with such great rapidity.

From the standpoint of our national defense, the dimensions of change are enormous. In the decade between 1947 and 1957 there were more changes in warfare than in the whole of the previous century, from 1857 to 1957. In this 100 years, the technological changes were roughly the magnitude of those which had taken place during almost a thousand years previous; that is to say from about 1147, with the building of the great medieval castles.

Designing the castles, learning to use the longbow, inventing gunpowder, developing the musket and the cannons—all of these changes in warfare occurred before - 1847. Fragmentation shells, steam-driven propeller-motivated ships, battleships made of iron, new ranging devices, repeating weapons, jet propulsion, the tank, radar, and finally the atomic bomb—these were some of the developments of the century 1847–1947. In the 10 years from 1947 to 1957, however, a similarly astonishing change took place in warfare—miniaturization, missilery, hydrogen bombs, and automation. This dramatic geometric progression gives us a window and some perspective on the future. The United States is deeply involved in this revolution in warfare with a spectrum of instruments running from those used in conventional warfare to those used in thermonuclear attack and defense and extending to the potentials of space. We must have sophisticated military and supporting manpower to cope with the requirements posed by this broad spectrum of warfare.

Modern technology is developing so rapidly that weapons have increased in destructive power some 100,000-fold in less than two decades—from World War II to the present. The demands of our new technology are such that our educational resources are the very base on which we must build our modern forces. Our colleges and universities are basic resources.

Technology is only a part of the educational picture which we must bear in mind for today and the decades ahead. Technology and the training necessary for it cannot be overemphasized, but at the same time other educational demands are being made each day which are equally pressing. These demands are especially strong for education in the area of the social sciences and in languages.

No society has ever displaced so many other societies as that of the Western World has. The technological revolution of the 19th and 20th centuries in the Atlantic community has changed the political face of the globe from Africa to Asia. The pressures of our time have created new countries, new ways of facing things, and new problems to be solved today in a context quite different from that of the 19th century.

There has been great interest in the development of capability in guerrilla warfare and counterinsurgency. But both guerrilla warfare and counterinsurgency require our officers and men to know more of languages, history, sociology, economics, and psychology than ever before.

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The problems of guerrilla warfare and counterinsurgency are ones which military instruments alone cannot solve. The insidious spread of communism requires that our military men and women participate in the rebuilding of societies in conflict, and this, in turn, means that they must know and appreciate the societies into which they are moved as instructors and planners. They must understand the structure of villages, areas, and regions. They must understand and appreciate political relationships in a way they have not had to do before. They must be able to work with other agencies of Government such as the Departments of State, Commerce, Agriculture, and the U.S. Information Agency, so that together our country teams overseas may bring to bear a coordinated effort to keep our friends and our allies out of Communist hands. In other words, we not only have a definite need to study technology but have at the same time the equally pressing need to understand all of the arts of communication, all of the economic interrelationships, all of the impacts of sociological change on all areas throughout the world. These are the reasons that the Department of Defense has put a new emphasis on educational programs and why they are considered essential. For the same reasons, it is vitally important to strengthen the national higher education structure.

Because of the Nation's needs for better educated personnel the Armed Forces now have a difficult problem both in obtaining and in retaining the people they need. Within about 2 years of their graduation from the Great Lakes Naval Training Center Electronics School, almost 90 percent of the technicians return to civilian life where their skills are in great demand. Again, recently an Air Force spokesman said that while the overall retention rate for officers was 40 percent, the retention rate for science and engineering officers was only about 15 percent and for research and development officers only about 7 percent. These examples illustrate that as a Nation we face critical manpower shortages which a program strengthening education would alleviate.

TODAY, as never before, the enlisted man must have a good educational grounding, preferably through high school, if he is to absorb training and perform effectively the demanding tasks generated by our modern Armed Forces. At the end of World War II, about one-third of all enlisted jobs were in occupations which are classified as technical and mechanical jobs in the civil economy. These fields now account for almost half of all enlisted jobs.

The quality and extent of preparation in mathematics and especially in English have a bearing on success in training and on effective performance in these and other military jobs. Moreover, of the Nation's some 1,400,000 youths who yearly reach the age of eligibility for military service, about 235,000 will be unable to pass the mental tests required for entrance into the Armed Forces. Lack of educational opportunity certainly contributes to this significant social and military liability. Additionally, better educated servicemen are not only more competent but are also less likely to create disciplinary problems. Here, then, is a clear-cut responsibility and challenge to American higher education: Develop new techniques for diagnostic testing, basic education, vocational and psychological counseling, and methods for motivating this segment of American citizenry which has for too long been, not forgotten, but neglected. Who is better equipped than the Nation's educators to provide leadership and know-how in preventive and remedial services for school-aged youth? It is time we shelved the old wives' tale that "the poor will always be with us." We can no longer afford a society in which preliminary screening shows one out of every two selective service registrants called for preinduction examination to be unqualified.

Each year the services obtain only a small percentage of their new officers from the service academies. For the remainder, the services must, and happily do, rely primarily on civilian colleges and universities. They have been getting over 30,000 new officers a year, of which about 1,600 come from the service academies. The three academies at West Point, Annapolis, and Colorado Springs in fact are only the most visible part of a Department of Defense educational complex which ranges from recruit training to operating top-level military professional schools such as the National War College and the Industrial College of the Armed Forces. As part of the programs to meet their educational needs, the services have at any one time students in some 400 civilian collegiate institutions. The Army alone has students doing graduate work in some 88 universities here and abroad. The Department of Defense must meet its requirements by conducting educational

(*Continued on page 13*)

Academic Responsibility and NDEA Programs

By KENNETH W. MILDENBERGER*

DURING a single month last fall 73 university presidents, deans, professors, and other educators spent 2,256 hours in reviewing and rating applications for financial aid received by the Division of College and University Assistance in the Office of Education. Twenty-four of these paid consultants reviewed 1,243 proposals for new or expanded graduate programs representing 6,197 fellowships; 27 examined 119 proposals for counseling and guidance training institutes; another 17 analyzed 150 applications for foreign language institutes; and 5 others reviewed 32 plans for special summer intensive courses in such languages as Hindi, Arabic, Chinese, and Swahili.

This is one of the more evident ways in which the educational community actively participates in the administration of those programs in the National Defense Education Act that affect institutions of higher learning. As a consequence of the considered ratings and recommendations developed by these representatives of the classroom, a wide variety of federally supported instruction will be offered during 1964–65 at hundreds of colleges and universities in every State. And by this significant participation in the administrative processes of Federal assistance programs, these consultants are helping to contain any possible arbitrariness. In other words, they are playing a part in controlling Federal aid to education.

It has been pointed out that the potential for Federal control of education through financial assistance programs may exist at two levels, in the law and in the administration of the law. First, education legislation may have a limiting effect upon educational development since it will reflect congressional judgment regarding which specific educational activities are appropriate to the Federal concern. Second, agency administration of education aid programs may abuse the discretionary powers through insulation, ignorance, neglect, misinformation, or favoritism; and, to the extent that management becomes irresponsible and exercises unwarranted control, it will thwart fair and effective conduct of the aid program.

In regard to legislative specificity, a number of keen observers have in recent years described the difficult political, social, and fiscal considerations which necessarily bear upon congressional actions in the educational field. Anyone with an understanding of the complex circumstances of educational legislation in our representative form of Federal Government must find the recent accomplishments of the Congress remarkably responsive to demonstrated needs.

This article is concerned solely with responsible program administration. Specifically, it will chronicle and describe some of the means by which the Office of Education has sought to achieve well-informed professional administration of the higher education assistance programs of the National Defense Education Act. This discussion is not meant to provide a classic prescription for any such future programs which the Congress may enact, nor is it meant to suggest that an optimum degree of success has been reached. The effort for effective, responsible management in such Federal aid programs is a never-ending, dynamic pursuit calling for 2- and 3-year planning as well as daily improvisation. It depends upon such matters as alertness and aggressiveness of management, perception and cooperation of professional staff, availability of administrative funds and time, and the readiness of higher education officials and faculty to act as consultants and advisors in Federal aid programs.

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When the Presidential signature was affixed to the National Defense Education Act on September 2, 1958, the Office of Education found itself charged with the administration of four programs involving colleges and universities: A student loan program authorizing up to $90 million a year for distribution to higher education institutions; a general graduate fellowship program of 1,500 3-year awards annually at a cost of approximately $22 million a year; a foreign language development program authorizing $15,250,000 annually for language and area centers, for stipends for advanced language students, for research, and for institutes for school teachers; and an institute program for high school counseling and guidance personnel, at $7,250,000 annually.

These four basic activities were quickly organized into a new Financial Aid Branch in the existing Division of Higher Education, and the development of administrative responsibility began.[1]

From the beginning program administration policy reflected an enlightened attitude which is disarmingly simple in concept yet very difficult in implementation. The objective of Federal administration was to insure: (1) That in each NDEA program every feasible means was employed to obtain appropriate advice and direction from the higher education community, (2) that the congressional intent of the legislation was carefully explicated and observed, and (3) that prudent Federal management techniques were followed. The success of these programs ultimately depended upon the educational results, which is to say, upon the professional competence and the viability of existing resources in our higher education enterprise. Federal funds and dicta could not alone effect changes; only higher education could help itself. And therefore the participation of the higher education community was essential if the administrative accomplishment was to be more substantial than the mere prudent management of appropriated funds.

What are some of the specific ways in which a fruitful interaction has been fostered between the higher education community and the NDEA administrative staff? For convenience we may recognize three major headings: Staff recruitment, "sounding board" activities, and formal review by experts.

[1] In a reorganization of the Office of Education in April 1962 the Financial Aid Branch became the Division of College and University Assistance.

Staff Recruitment in The Office of Education

From the inception of NDEA, strenuous efforts were made to fill administrative positions with persons out of the education community who were well qualified to direct the particular aid program and who were esteemed by their professional colleagues. Civil Service requirements for professional positions in the Office of Education place emphasis upon experience in the educational enterprise, especially administrative experience, and recent revisions give equal recognition to the applicant with distinction in research and scholarship.

Few academic people seem willing to make a career of Federal administration, but many have found it possible to serve for tours of a year or longer, and some have stayed on. The Graduate Fellowship Program in the first 5 years of NDEA was headed by five successive graduate deans drawn from five diverse disciplines (classics, chemistry, psychology, agricultural economics, history). The Language Development Program was initiated by a Distinguished Service Professor of English who was a Milton scholar with a singular knowledge of the foreign language field, which he had attained while Executive Secretary of the Modern Language Association; the Student Loan Program, by the director of the student aid program in a State department of education; and the counseling and guidance program, by the former head of an educational psychology department.

Of critical importance are the many supporting administrative positions in the NDEA programs, and here too the higher education community has been richly represented. These specialists have brought to NDEA administration both professional status and knowledge of the workings of colleges and universities. Representation of every type of institution of higher learning and every part of the country may be found in the aggregate experience of these staff members.

In most cases the staff members recruited from academic positions have been teachers rather than administrators. For some, adaptation to program administration has been difficult. But almost without exception they have quickly recognized their responsibilities to the public interest while retaining a fundamental identification with the nongovernmental educational community.

"Sounding Board" Activities

Only a most complacent administration would sit back and wait for its clientele to report dissatisfactions and criticisms, imagined or justified. Government and higher education share responsibilities for creating proper means of direct and continuing communication in this respect. Such "sounding board" activities are vital.

Ten weeks after the enactment of NDEA the Office of Education conducted a series of open discussions of the new higher education aid programs at prearranged regional meetings in Washington, New York, Boston, Portland, San Francisco, Denver, Dallas, Chicago, Louisville, and Kansas City. Nearly every higher education institution was represented at these meetings. The newly recruited NDEA administrators, in question-and-answer sessions, began to take the pulse of the community they were to serve, and an atmosphere of direct cooperation was created.

Since then, scores of national, regional, and State educational associations have helped keep the channels of communication open. For example, they have repeatedly provided generous portions of time at their annual meetings for continuing this two-way, face-to-face communication. Both the institutions of higher learning and the Government are especially indebted for the invaluable forums that have been arranged by national organizations such as the American Council on Education, the Association for Higher Education, the Association of Graduate Schools, the Modern Language Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and many others.

Despite the benefits NDEA administrators receive from such forums, it is still essential for them to go directly to the campus for grassroots comments. The NDEA program administrators have not been stay-at-home, desk-bound functionaries, and their visits to campuses have encouraged understanding and increased effectiveness on both sides.

This campus-Office relationship was judged so essential that in 1959 the first steps were taken to establish in each of the nine regional offices of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare a regional representative of the NDEA higher education programs. These field people visit the more than 1,500 institutions with NDEA programs, review sponsored projects, and listen to the local sounding boards—the officials, professors, and students. In academic year 1962–63 for example, these 9 people visited 714 institutions. Their special reports on institutional visits keep headquarters staff posted on NDEA programs and local reactions. In addition their detailed monthly reports to the Office of Education provide a sensitive and current picture of the regional higher education enterprise. These regional representatives, usually former college presidents and deans, are selected for their mature understanding of higher education and their ability to confer frankly and easily with the higher education community at all echelons.

Formal Review by Experts

No matter how professionally able the staff or how voluminous the incidental intelligence which flows from association meetings and campus visits, the bedrock of an effective Federal aid program must reside in formal and specific advisory assignments performed by nongovernmental individuals and groups. Significant program policies and all applications for funds should be reviewed by competent and respected representatives of the educational enterprise. At every important step, Federal administrators should act in full cognizance of expert advice from "outside."

Every feasible means has been employed to provide the Office of Education with professional counsel. Twelve-member advisory committees were established to counsel the Commissioner of Education on the Graduate Fellowship Program, the Language Development Program, and the Counseling and Guidance Training Institute Program, and distinguished educators have accepted appointments. Panels of consultants have been regularly constituted to rate and evaluate applications for financial support in the Student Loan Program, the Counseling and Guidance Training Institute Program, the Language Institute Program, the Language Fellowship Program, and the Language Research Program. The Language and Area Centers Program and the Language Research Program have engaged the services of individuals and small groups whenever the need arose. More than 250 experts have reviewed language research proposals, so diverse and specialized have been the requests for assistance.

Further, it has seemed advisable from time to

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Contributed Services and Salaried Faculty in 188 Catholic Colleges, 1963-64

By LOUIS A. D'AMICO and ERNEST V. HOLLIS*

MANY leading higher education officials consider the shortage of qualified instructional personnel to be the foremost problem confronting colleges and universities. Numerous Catholic institutions help fill their personnel needs by utilizing qualified priests and nuns in their instructional programs. Indeed, the use of these dedicated persons as faculty not only helps solve the personnel problems but also bears to some extent on the financial problems of these institutions. Some public and nonpublic Protestant college recruiting officers wish they had access to a pool of qualified persons who would contribute their services in a way similar to that available to Catholic colleges. Just how important is this pool as a source of supply?

It is generally recognized that dedicated faculty members in both Protestant and Catholic colleges contribute to operating budgets by accepting salaries lower than those paid comparable staff members in public and independent private colleges. A recent Office of Education staff study shows the differential to approximate $1,400 per year.[1] A comparable 1962–63 report of mean salaries paid all faculty was as follows: Independent private colleges, $8,707; public colleges, $8,396; Lutheran colleges, $7,106; Catholic colleges, $6,916; Presbyterian colleges, $6,893; Methodist colleges, $6,820; and Baptist colleges, $6,686. These findings support the assumption that all qualified and dedicated faculty in these denominationally affiliated institutions underwrite a good-sized proportion of the operational costs by accepting lower salaries.

It is the purpose of the Office study to define contributed service as used by Catholic and other colleges and to provide some information on the questions of its use by 12,066 full-time undergraduate faculty members in Catholic colleges and universities in 1963–64: (1) What proportion of the faculty in these colleges served on a contributed services basis? (2) How did the ranks of the faculty on contributed services compare with the ranks of those on full salary? and (3) What was the relationship between the proportion of faculty serving on a contributed services basis and the size of total faculty in the 188 colleges and universities? Some comments, based on information from sources other than the Office study, will also be made on whether the use of contributed services is an increasing or declining practice in Catholic schools and colleges.

Contributed services defined and illustrated

College business officers define *contributed service* as "that rendered to an institution for which compensation is not paid, but which service should be recognized in accounts and reports at a fair value in accordance with the amount paid for such service in institutions where cash compensation prevails." *The College and University Business Administration Manual* (vol. I, p. 64) is more explicit. It recommends that "An amount equal to the total of the contributed services . . . should appear as a separate item in the income statement. In reporting such income, however, a deduction should be made for payments to the religious order or to the individual with respect to such services, maintenance costs, and personal expenses which are not ordinarily expenses of educational institutions."

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[1] Robert W. Bokelman; Louis A. D'Amico; and Anna Jane Holbrook; "Faculty Salaries and Basic Student Charges at Private Institutions of Higher Education," *Educational Record* 44: 254–57, July 1963.

In applying these accounting principles, Catholic colleges vary widely. For example, universities which employ diocesan priests who do not take the vow of poverty as teachers or administrators may set salaries at levels comparable to those reported for lay personnel by the U.S. Office of Education, pay the priest an agreed-upon portion (usually one-half), and carry the remainder as the net contributed service. A religious order may administer contributed services on a different arrangement. It may divide agreed-upon salary between the university and the religious community, in a proportion that may range from 25 to 75 percent for the educational institution. The percentage depends on which provides for the living expenses, retirement, and related items for the priests and sisters of the religious orders.

Not only do Catholic colleges vary widely in policies and procedures used to allocate the dollar value of contributed services, they do not agree on whether the contribution should be credited as a gift to the current operating budget or as a gift to endowment. Business officers tend to account for such gifts in the current budget, but directors of development and other fund-raising officers prefer to account for them in endowment and hold that to do otherwise discourages patrons from making cash gifts.

Distribution of contributed services

Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of faculty—contributed services, salaried, and total—by rank and by length of employment. Of the total, approximately 40 percent were in the upper two ranks (professor and associate professor). Two-fifths of the faculty in these ranks are on a contributed services basis, three-fifths on full salary. Of the 60 percent in the lower two ranks, however, about one-third were on a contributed services basis and two-thirds were on full salary. It should be noted that the percentage of total faculty represented by professors on contributed services (9.3) was almost as high as the percentage represented by professors on full salary (10.0). In other words, the older and higher ranking faculty members were priests and nuns.

The rank distribution of faculty on 9–10 month work basis shows that the upper two ranks comprised under 40 percent. However, the percentage of total faculty in these two ranks who contributed their services (17.4) was 4.4 percent lower than the corresponding percentage on full salary (21.8). The lower two ranks comprised almost 61 percent of the faculty teaching 9–10 months; 18.1 percent who contributed their services, and slightly under 42.6 percent who were salaried. Comparable figures on the distribution of 11–12-month faculty ranks are also shown in table 1.

Table 1.—Percentage distribution of undergraduate faculty serving on salaried and contributed services basis in 188 Catholic 4-year colleges and universities by rank and length of employment: 1963–64

Item	Rank and length of employment				
	Professor	Associate professor	Assistant professor	Instructor	Total
	9–10 month				
Total number	1,861	2,139	3,341	2,847	10,188
Percent contributed services	9.3	8.1	10.0	8.1	35.6
Percent salaried	8.9	12.9	22.8	19.8	64.4
Total percent	18.3	21.0	32.8	27.9	100.0
	11–12 month				
Total number	467	509	591	311	1,878
Percent contributed services	9.3	8.5	10.9	8.1	36.7
Percent salaried	15.6	18.6	20.6	8.5	63.3
Total percent	24.9	27.1	31.5	16.6	100.0
	Total				
Total number	2,328	2,648	3,932	3,158	12,066
Percent contributed services	9.3	8.2	10.1	8.1	35.8
Percent salaried	10.0	13.8	22.5	18.1	64.2
Total percent	19.3	22.0	32.6	26.2	100.0

Proportion of faculty on contributed service

The total number of full-time undergraduate faculty in 188 Catholic institutions in 1963–64 was 12,066, an average of 64 per institution (see table 2). Of the total number, 15.6 percent (1,878) worked on an 11–12-month basis and 84.4 percent (10,188) on a 9–10-month basis. Approximately 36 percent of all faculty contributed their services. Whereas about 31 percent of the instructors served on this basis, 48 percent of the full professors were on contributed services. For the full professor and as-

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sociate professor ranks, the percentage of the faculty on a contributed services basis was higher for those serving on 9–10-month basis than for those serving on 11–12-month basis; the reverse was true for the assistant professor and instructor ranks.

Table 2.—Percentage of undergraduate faculty in 188 4-year Catholic colleges and universities serving on a contributed services basis by rank and length of employment: 1963–64

Item	Rank and length of employment				
	Professor	Associate professor	Assistant professor	Instructor	Total
	9–10 month				
Total number	1,861	2,139	3,341	2,847	10,188
Percent contributed services	51.1	38.7	30.5	29.0	35.6
	11–12 month				
Total number	467	509	591	311	1,878
Percent contributed services	37.5	31.2	34.5	48.9	36.7
	Total				
Total number	2,328	2,648	3,932	3,158	12,066
Percent contributed services	48.4	37.2	31.1	31.0	35.8

Contributed service by size of faculty

The extent to which Catholic institutions were staffed by faculty member contributing services is shown in table 3 by faculty size. A number of facts are revealed in table 3, among them these: More than one-half the 24 large Catholic colleges had less than one-fourth of their faculty members on a contributed services basis, but one-third of the 102 small colleges had more than three-fourths of their faculty members on a contributed basis.

Of the 188 colleges, 77 were able to secure contributed services from 26 to 50 percent of their faculties: 29 of the smallest colleges, 40 of the middle-sized, and 8 of the largest.

In general, the data in columns three and four of table 3 lead to the conclusion that two-thirds of the 188 Catholic colleges were able to recruit between one-fourth and three-fourths of their teachers

Table 3.—Percentage distribution of contributed services: Tota undergraduate faculty in 188 4-year Catholic colleges and universities by size of full-time undergraduate faculty (9–10- and 11–12-month faculty combined): 1963–64

Size of faculty	Percent on contributed services				
	1–25	26–50	51–75	76+	Total
1–50	6	29	34	33	102
51–100	5	40	14	3	62
101	14	8	2	.....	24
Total	25	77	50	36	188

from a qualified clerical manpower pool which is not available to non-Catholic colleges.

What of the future?

The tables support the view held by some Catholic directors of development that the entire religious community has been a "living endowment" of Catholic colleges and universities. This contribution has provided the financial and human resources by which these institutions were founded and have been operated. Consequently the dioceses and the religious orders stand in much the same relation to Catholic educational institutions as the States do to their schools and colleges.

Table 1 shows that in 1963–64 nearly two-thirds of the 12,066 teachers in 188 Catholic institutions were reported as on full salary. Other sources indicate that a little more than a decade earlier a majority were reported as on a contributed service basis, and prior to World War II it was a constitutional majority. Table 2 suggests that the older men and women are contributing larger proportions of the contributed services, but because they are the professors and associate professors it must be assumed they also give character and direction to instructional programs.

It is equally significant to note from table 3 that in 1963–64 only 2 of the 24 large universities employed more than half of their teachers on a contributed services basis while 67 of the 102 small institutions did so. Prior to World War II, nearly all Catholic universities employed most of their teachers on a contributed services basis; and, except for physical education, it was then difficult to find lay teachers in small Catholic women's colleges.

The authors see no cause for alarm in the tendencies and trends foreshadowed in this article. Catholic

colleges and universities are merely in the forefront of the position taken by the recent Ecumenical Council which favors an increasing use of laymen in church activities. What is lost in dedication is perhaps compensated for by breadth and variety of education and experience lay faculty bring to an institution of higher education.

OFFICE OF EDUCATION Studies AND Surveys

Surveys of Foreign Language Enrollment

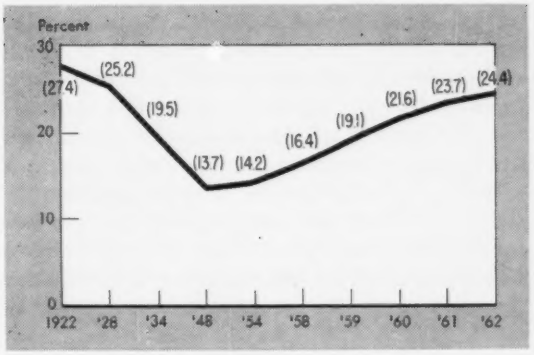
ENROLLMENT on the college level in the neglected languages increased from 15,707 in the fall of 1961 to 17,072 in the fall of 1962, representing a gain of 8.7 percent. There was a substantial increase in these enrollments every year between 1959 and 1962. The graduate enrollment increased by 24.5 percent and the undergraduate enrollment by 4.2 percent but the undergraduate enrollment still makes up approximately 72.8 percent of the total enrollments.

These facts were reported in a survey of neglected language enrollments, programs, and personnel in colleges and universities, fall 1962, which was conducted by the Modern Language Association under contract with the U.S. Office of Education. The survey was completed December 15, 1963.

The report of the survey includes data on summer 1963 offerings, teachers, and enrollments in the neglected languages, the teaching of Chinese in the secondary schools, and a compilation of instructional materials used by teachers of the neglected languages in the fall of 1962.

Enrollment in modern foreign languages as a percentage of total enrollment in public high schools: Grades 9–12

Year	Enrollment in modern foreign languages	Total enrollment
1922	611,025	2,230,000
1928	845,338	3,354,473
1934	1,096,022	5,620,626
1948	740,800	5,399,452
1954	639,773	4,505,440
1958	1,295,944	7,897,232
1959	1,564,883	8,155,573
1960	1,867,358	8,649,495
1961	2,192,207	9,246,925
1962	2,418,899	9,891,183



Enrollment in modern foreign languages as a percentage of total enrollment in public high schools: Grades 9–12

The Modern Language Association has also recently completed a survey of foreign language offerings and enrollments in public secondary schools, fall 1961 and fall 1962, and in nonpublic secondary schools in the fall of 1962. This survey was primarily concerned with the languages commonly taught in the secondary schools—French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish—although enrollment of 7,423 was also reported in "other" foreign languages. Of the total public high school enrollment reported in the fall of 1962, 24.4 percent of the enrollments were in modern foreign languages.

Enrollment in language has been rising steadily since 1954, as the chart shows.

During the period 1958–62 the total public school enrollments increased approximately 25 percent, while enrollments in modern foreign languages increased by more than 86 percent. Spanish still retains its lead with slightly over 47 percent of all language enrollments; French is a close second. From 1961 to 1962 enrollments in Spanish, French, German, and Russian increased by 8.3, 12.1, 15.5, and 21.2 percent respectively. The survey revealed that in each year since 1958 a higher percent of students have taken a third year of language, particularly students of Russian. *Nevertheless, only ½ of 1 percent of high school students are enrolled in modern foreign languages beyond the third year.*

The enrollment in foreign languages in nonpublic high schools for 1962 was reported for independent and Catholic schools. In the independent high

schools, enrollment in foreign languages was 75.4 percent of the total student population, and in modern foreign languages, 54.5 percent. In the Catholic schools, enrollment in foreign languages was 76.1 percent of the total student population, and in modern foreign languages, 37.5 percent.

Reports of the surveys, *Foreign-Language Offerings and Enrollments in Secondary Schools, Public Schools: Fall 1961, Fall 1962 and Nonpublic Schools: Fall 1962*, cost $1.50, and *Manpower in the Neglected Languages, Fall 1962*, may be obtained by writing to Glen Willbern, director of research, The Modern Language Association of America, 4 Washington Place, New York 10003, N.Y.

Increase in Tuition Charges

ACCORDING to an Office of Education survey for 1958-59 and 1962–63, encompassing a span of 4 years, median tuition charges for undergraduates have increased considerably in both public and private colleges and universities.

Responses from 851 private institutions, show that median tuition charges increased from $534 for the school year 1958–59 to $740 for 1962–63. By comparison, charges in 514 public colleges and universities increased, for the period, from $134 to $183 for State residents, and from $338 to $449, for students from outside the State.

Approximately two-thirds of all public and private institutions answered the survey request. Using only the returns from institutions responding in both years, the Office found that over the 4-year period 98 percent of the private institutions raised tuition and student fees and that of the public colleges and universities 81 percent raised charges to State residents, 91 raised them to non-State residents.

Approximately 19 percent of the private institutions increased their fees by $100 or less for a two-semester school year; 32 percent by $101 to $200; 26 percent by $201 to $300, and slightly more than 20 percent by $301.

On the other hand, more than 70 percent of the public colleges and universities increased fees to State residents by $100 or less; 8 percent by $101 to $200, and 1 percent by $201 to $300. On dealing with out-of-State residents, half the public colleges held their increases to $100 or less; another 29 percent from $101 to $200, and 10 percent from $201 to $300, while 2 percent exceeded $301.

OE program notes

National Defense Education Act

Graduate fellowships in modern foreign languages

UNDER TITLE VI of the National Defense Education Act the U.S. Office of Education has awarded 794 fellowships to graduate students who will study 58 modern foreign languages at 50 graduate schools during the 1964–65 academic year. The fellows will prepare for careers in college teaching, government service, or for service with nonprofit, nonsectarian organizations.

Nearly 70 percent of the 1964–65 awards are for the study of 7 languages which the Commissioner of Education has designated as priority: Arabic (77 awards), Chinese (97), Hindi-Urdu (50), Japanese (57), Portuguese (59), Russian (124), and Spanish (85). The remaining fellowships were for languages spoken in Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America. Seventy-nine awards were made in Swahili, Hausa, Yoruba, and six other African languages—an increase over the 1963–64 awards of 30 fellowships for the study of African languages.

The modern foreign language fellowships include a basic stipend which covers tuition and all required fees, in addition to the grants of $450 for summer study only, $2,250 for the academic year, or $2,700 for the summer and academic year. Fellows may also apply for allowances for up to four eligible dependents. The allowance for each dependent is $120 for the summer only, or $600 for the academic year, or $720 for summer and academic year. Travel allowances are also authorized.

The new fellowships bring to approximately 4,100 the total number of awards in the 6 annual competitions that have been held since the beginning of the program. About 2,300 individual graduate students have received these awards. Over 3,300 applications were submitted for the 1964–65 competition.

Awards to undergraduates to study critical languages

THE U.S. Office of Education has presented awards to 200 undergraduate college students for the intensive study of 13 critical modern foreign languages during the summer of 1964. They will study languages which are spoken in Africa, the Middle

and Far East, South and Southeast Asia, and Latin America (Portuguese only).

The undergraduate awards are made under the language development provisions (title VI) of the National Defense Education Act and administered by the modern foreign language fellowship program. The awards include tuition and other institutional fees for the summer course as well as a maintenance allowance based on $400 for an 8-week term and round trip transportation to the university.

Some 350 applications were received for the 1964 summer undergraduate language study awards. Eligible applicants were required to show evidence of having completed at least 1 year of college preparation or the equivalent in the language. They also had to agree to devote themselves full time to the language study program. Recipients were nominated by the institutions conducting the programs, subject to review by the Office of Education.

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programs for training in virtually every kind of skill the 20th century needs. Communications, electronics, languages, sociology, international relations, nuclear physics—these are only some of the areas in which the Armed Forces must possess competence.

BECAUSE the Department of Defense has educational needs on every intellectual level, strengthening and improving the educational quality of the nation's manpower are directly related to the nation's ability to defend itself. It is therefore of special interest to the Department of Defense as a major user of the Nation's manpower to encourage and support efforts to upgrade education at all levels and especially in the college and university.

Getting back to the military, there are at present some 300,000 officers and enlisted men on full-time duty in specialized training or in education programs. These men are educating themselves or being trained in all the subjects normally expected, such as electronics, radar repair and maintenance, and infantry tactics. But the same men are doing a number of things which might not normally be expected. They are taking some 4,000 courses which are offered in the Department of Defense and in the several hundred universities which they attend. Some are studying international relations; others, petroleum management. Some 8,000 on full-time duty are studying 1 of the 50 languages offered by the Department. Still others are taking courses in business administration, nuclear physics, taxonomy, naval architecture, automatic data processing, and a number of other subjects not traditionally associated with military requirements. As a matter of fact, the services have hundreds of officers doing postgraduate work in more than a hundred universities from Maine to California and from Wisconsin to Texas. This point is stressed because the interest of the Department of Defense in education is not as widely known or understood as it should be. There is still in the professional education community a lack of awareness of military efforts and contributions to higher education.

Quite apart from military manpower, the Department of Defense is one of the Nation's largest employers of civilian manpower. About 1 million civilians are employed directly by the Department in shipyards, depots, laboratories, test centers, posts, camps, stations, and shore establishments of all kinds, all over the world. The spectrum of skills needed is about as broad as would be expected in an enterprise so vast. Significant percentages of scientists, engineers, managers, and other highly skilled persons are needed—and again these are the products of civilian colleges and universities.

The Armed Forces have done considerable research into the production of educated people. They consider it as important as the production of weapons. The military does not shy away from the idea of education as a technology. It believes firmly that the scientific revolution has a great deal to offer in improvement of techniques of education. In fact, the military has developed some new methods and techniques specifically adapted to needs of adult learners. The Air Force has been experimenting with and using programed instruction for more than 12 years. All of the services have been using correspondence and self-study programs for many years. They have been accumulating theory, knowledge, and practice and are convinced that a man can learn with these techniques.

The interest of the military establishment in education is, of course, nothing new; from the very beginning in our country the military has understood that a love of learning is a military necessity. It has understood very clearly that the military must

be on the very frontiers in matters of training and education just as it must be on the frontiers of technology on the one hand and, particularly today, of economics, politics, sociology, and psychology on the other. The basic mission of the Armed Forces in peacetime is training and education. Because they have had to be educational innovators, they have made a number of contributions to civilian education.

It was through the U.S. Military Academy at West Point that civil engineering was introduced into other colleges and universities in this country. Mechanical engineering and electrical engineering were first introduced into the curriculum under the aegis of the U.S. Naval Academy at Annapolis. As a matter of fact, it was members of the faculty at Annapolis who, in the course of time as they went elsewhere to teach, introduced these subjects directly into the curriculums of other institutions.

The military would prefer to have our American universities provide for as much of the education of our personnel in civilian allied subjects as possible. The Department of Defense does not believe that it should be duplicating those areas in which the universities over the years have proved their indispensable worth to our society. But the fact of the matter is that there are many areas in which civilian educational institutions either do not have the know-how or are simply not interested in teaching courses which are needed and not a part of the traditional curriculum. A specific example is the collection and analysis of data. The Department is spending huge sums on data, including data about managers, data about people, data about installations, data about materiel, and even data about data. But the handling of mass data is a new subject for the military as well as for industry, and as a result both are experiencing real difficulties in its management.

In order to establish appropriate management of data, the Department has had to establish a course of its own because this type of course is not to be found in the schools of the land. The same thing is true of management of projects. To be sure, some of our educational institutions are making significant progress in the management of large projects involving technical variables in our scientific capability. But a project manager must know many things. He does not need to be a systems analyst, but he certainly needs to know systems analysis techniques. He must understand relationship of cost in terms of time and costs in terms of money. These new techniques are not sufficiently known in the academic world to send military personnel there. Perforce the Armed Forces have developed a new system of management called PERT-Program Evaluation and Review Techniques and courses of study to train their personnel on these techniques.

There is no wish here to be critical of colleges and universities; it is apparent, however, that they have not had an adequate job of market research done—the military uses the term "requirements study"—to determine the educational needs and potential of the community.

THERE IS room for optimism when one considers the tremendous progress achieved in the past 10 years in the field of adult education. The first breakthrough came when institutions of higher education agreed that a mature adult had learned something valuable through experience and work which could be equated with college subjects. Next came the recognition by institutions of this learning in terms of credit toward a college degree. Now a number of universities have developed or are developing degree programs designed specifically for adults who cannot be present on campus for the traditional semester attendance. The State of New York is a pioneer in measuring educational achievement through the use of proficiency examinations in college subjects for which degree credits may be awarded. Apparently this program has met with success and should encourage other States and institutions to follow suit.

Education must be reoriented to a conception of learning as a life-long process. Teachers in schools and colleges should learn to teach yonug people so that they leave formal schooling with an insatiable curiosity, a mastery of the tools of learning, and a commitment to continue learning through the rest of their lives. In the Department of Defense this desire for knowledge permeates every organization and channel. There is an ever-increasing demand for more and better learning opportunities and facilities—not by command fiat, but from within each man and woman in uniform. This demand and similar appeals from other segments of our national society can be answered only if there is a national commitment to provide and support the resources necessary for the development of life-long learning as an integral part of the American system.

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time for the Office to commission nongovernmental agencies to take an independent inventory and to make a professional evaluation of some NDEA programs. Thus, the Language Institute Program has achieved a high standard of excellence because of candid field investigations, first under the auspices of the venerable Middlebury College Summer Language Schools, then under the direction of the Modern Language Association. At present, the Office is financing an independent evaluation of the Counseling and Guidance Training Institute Program.

The act stipulates that the Commissioner will designate the "critical" languages to be supported with Federal funds, and the initial recommendations in this regard were made by the American Council of Learned Societies under an NDEA contract; subsequently, another NDEA contract resulted in justification for enlargement of the list of "critical" languages. The language and area center program was subjected to an independent field analysis under the auspicies of the American Council on Education, with NDEA financial assistance, and the book-length report of the conclusions stands as a basic contribution to the concept of language and area study in higher education. The president of ACE in a foreword to the report states: "As this inventory shows, the Federal Government has provided its share of the financing of language and area centers without impairing the autonomy of the institutions receiving the funds; in short, Federal funds have been given without Federal control."

Perspective

It would, of course, be erroneous to assume from the foregoing that the administration of NDEA higher education programs has become a nongovernmental function. The statutes charge the U.S. Commissioner of Education with responsibility for these programs, and he must make an annual NDEA report to the Congress as well as testify regularly before appropriation subcommittees and occasionally before education subcommittees. Office of Education professional personnel are Civil Service employees and subject to rigid conflict-of-interest laws. A highly competent legal staff is available to insure that administrative implementation remains within the context of the legislative intent, and a vigilant corps of fiscal specialists monitors transactions and audits expenditures. This is as it should be.

But the vicissitudes of time make amply clear that, whatever else changes, the locus of problems which Federal financial assistance may seek to solve lies within the educational enterprise itself. It therefore seems vital that appropriate quarters in the enterprise maintain professional responsibility for a continuing critical review of Federal program administration in whatever independent ways seem advisable, and also by whatever means are provided under Federal auspices such as those above.

It is important in this scheme of things that Office of Education staff members receive frank comments from the persons they serve. Representatives of American education invited to work on advisory committees and panels of consultants should seek out the experience and counsel of their colleagues, who in turn should know, and consult with, those who represent them. There is still a great deal to be learned on both sides in this interaction between the higher education community and Federal administrators, but a sincere cooperative effort is being made in the NDEA programs.

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